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A multi-ancestry genome-wide study incorporating gene-smoking interactions identifies multiple new loci for pulse pressure and mean arterial pressure

Yun Ju Sung,^{1,*} Lisa de las Fuentes,^{2,1,*} Thomas W. Winkler,^{3,*} Daniel I. Chasman,^{4,*} Amy R. Bentley,^{5,*} Aldi T. Kraja,^{6,*} Ioanna Ntalla,^{7,*} Helen R. Warren,^{7,8,*} Xiuqing Guo,^{9,*} Karen Schwander,¹ Alisa K. Manning,^{10,11} Michael R. Brown,¹² Hugues Aschard,^{13,14} Mary F. Feitosa,⁶ Nora Franceschini,¹⁵ Yingchang Lu,¹⁶ Ching-Yu Cheng,^{17,18,19} Xueling Sim,²⁰ Dina Vojinovic,²¹ Jonathan Marten,²² Solomon K. Musani,²³ Tuomas O. Kilpeläinen,^{24,25} Melissa A Richard,²⁶ Stella Aslibekyan,²⁷ Traci M. Bartz,²⁸ Rajkumar Dorajoo,²⁹ Changwei Li,³⁰ Yongmei Liu,³¹ Tuomo Rankinen,³² Albert Vernon Smith,^{33,34} Salman M. Tajuddin,³⁵ Bamidele O. Tayo,³⁶ Wei Zhao,³⁷ Yanhua Zhou,³⁸ Nana Matoba,³⁹ Tamar Sofer,^{40,41} Maris Alver,⁴² Marzyeh Amini,⁴³ Mathilde Boissel,⁴⁴ Jin Fang Chai,²⁰ Xu Chen,⁴⁵ Jasmin Divers,⁴⁶ Ilaria Gandin,⁴⁷ Chuan Gao,⁴⁸ Franco Giulianini,⁴ Anuj Goel,^{49,50} Sarah E. Harris,^{51,52} Fernando P. Hartwig,^{53,54} Andrea R. V. R. Horimoto,⁵⁵ Fang-Chi Hsu,⁴⁶ Anne U. Jackson,⁵⁶ Candace M. Kammerer,⁵⁷ Anuradhani Kasturiratne,⁵⁸ Pirjo Komulainen,⁵⁹ Brigitte Kühnel,^{60,61} Karin Leander,⁶² Wen-Jane Lee,⁶³ Keng-Hung Lin,⁶⁴ Jian'an Luan,⁶⁵ Leo-Pekka Lyytikäinen,^{66,67} Colin A. McKenzie,⁶⁸ He Meian,⁶⁹ Christopher P. Nelson,^{70,71} Raymond Noordam,⁷² Robert A. Scott,⁶⁵ Wayne H.H. Sheu,^{73,74,75,76} Alena Stančáková,⁷⁷ Fumihiko Takeuchi,⁷⁸ Peter J. van der Most,⁴³ Tibor V. Varga,⁷⁹ Robert J. Waken,¹ Heming Wang,^{40,41} Yajuan Wang,⁸⁰ Erin B. Ware,^{81,37} Stefan Weiss,^{82,83} Wanqing Wen,⁸⁴ Lisa R. Yanek,⁸⁵ Weihua Zhang,^{86,87} Jing Hua Zhao,⁶⁵ Saima Afaq,⁸⁶ Tamuno Alfred,¹⁶ Najaf Amin,²¹ Dan E. Arking,⁸⁸ Tin Aung,^{17,18,19} R Graham Barr,⁸⁹ Lawrence F. Bielak,³⁷ Eric Boerwinkle,^{12,90} Erwin P. Bottinger,¹⁶ Peter S. Braund,^{70,71} Jennifer A. Brody,⁹¹

Ulrich Broeckel,⁹² Brian Cade,⁴¹ Yu Caizheng,⁶⁹ Archie Campbell,⁹³ Mickaël Canouil,⁴⁴
 Aravinda Chakravarti,⁸⁸ Massimiliano Cocca,⁴⁷ Francis S. Collins,⁹⁴ John M. Connell,⁹⁵ Renée
 de Mutsert,⁹⁶ H. Janaka de Silva,⁹⁷ Marcus Dörr,^{98,83} Qing Duan,⁹⁹ Charles B. Eaton,¹⁰⁰ Georg
 Ehret,^{88,101} Evangelos Evangelou,^{86,102} Jessica D. Faul,⁸¹ Nita G. Forouhi,⁶⁵ Oscar H. Franco,²¹
 Yechiel Friedlander,¹⁰³ He Gao,⁸⁶ Bruna Gigante,⁶² C. Charles Gu,¹ Preeti Gupta,¹⁷ Saskia P
 Hagenaaars,^{51,104} Tamara B. Harris,¹⁰⁵ Jiang He,^{106,107} Sami Heikkinen,^{77,108} Chew-Kiat
 Heng,^{109,110} Albert Hofman,²¹ Barbara V. Howard,^{111,112} Steven C. Hunt,^{113,114} Marguerite R.
 Irvin,¹¹⁵ Yucheng Jia,⁹ Tomohiro Katsuya,^{116,117} Joel Kaufman,¹¹⁸ Nicola D. Kerrison,⁶⁵ Chiea
 Chuen Khor,^{29,119} Woon-Puay Koh,^{120,20} Heikki A. Koistinen,^{121,122,123} Charles B. Kooperberg,¹²⁴
 Jose E. Krieger,⁵⁵ Michiaki Kubo,¹²⁵ Zoltan Kutalik,^{126,127} Johanna Kuusisto,⁷⁷ Timo A.
 Lakka,^{108,59,128} Carl D. Langefeld,⁴⁶ Claudia Langenberg,⁶⁵ Lenore J. Launer,¹⁰⁵ Joseph H. Lee,¹²⁹
 Benjamin Lehne,⁸⁶ Daniel Levy,^{130,131} Cora E. Lewis,¹³² Yize Li,¹ Lifelines cohort study,¹³³ Sing
 Hui Lim,¹⁷ Ching-Ti Liu,³⁸ Jianjun Liu,^{29,20} Jingmin Liu,¹³⁴ Yeheng Liu,⁹ Marie Loh,^{86,135} Kurt
 K. Lohman,⁴⁶ Tin Louie,¹³⁶ Reedik Mägi,⁴² Koichi Matsuda,¹³⁷ Thomas Meitinger,^{138,139} Andres
 Metspalu,⁴² Lili Milani,⁴² Yukihide Momozawa,¹⁴⁰ Thomas H. Mosley, Jr,¹⁴¹ Mike A. Nalls,¹⁴²
 Ubaydah Nasri,⁹ Jeff R. O'Connell,^{143,144} Adesola Ogunniyi,¹⁴⁵ Walter R. Palmas,¹⁴⁶ Nicholette
 D. Palmer,¹⁴⁷ James S. Pankow,¹⁴⁸ Nancy L. Pedersen,⁴⁵ Annette Peters,^{61,149} Patricia A.
 Peyser,³⁷ Ozren Polasek,^{150,151,152} David Porteous,⁹³ Olli T. Raitakari,^{153,154} Frida Renström,^{79,155}
 Treva K. Rice,¹ Paul M. Ridker,⁴ Antonietta Robino,¹⁵⁶ Jennifer G. Robinson,¹⁵⁷ Lynda M.
 Rose,⁴ Igor Rudan,¹⁵⁸ Charumathi Sabanayagam,^{17,18} Babatunde L. Salako,¹⁴⁵ Kevin Sandow,⁹
 Carsten O. Schmidt,^{159,83} Pamela J. Schreiner,¹⁴⁸ William R. Scott,^{86,160} Peter Sever,¹⁶¹ Mario
 Sims,²³ Colleen M. Sitlani,⁹¹ Blair H. Smith,¹⁶² Jennifer A. Smith,^{37,81} Harold Snieder,⁴³ John M.
 Starr,^{51,163} Konstantin Strauch,^{164,165} Hua Tang,¹⁶⁶ Kent D. Taylor,⁹ Yik Ying Teo,^{20,167,168,29,169}

Yih Chung Tham,¹⁷ André G Uitterlinden,¹⁷⁰ Melanie Waldenberger,^{60,61,65} Lihua Wang,⁶ Ya Xing Wang,¹⁷¹ Wen Bin Wei,¹⁷² Gregory Wilson,¹⁷³ Mary K. Wojczynski,⁶ Yong-Bing Xiang,¹⁷⁴ Jie Yao,⁹ Jian-Min Yuan,^{175,176} Alan B. Zonderman,¹⁷⁷ Diane M. Becker,⁸⁵ Michael Boehnke,⁵⁶ Donald W. Bowden,¹⁴⁷ John C. Chambers,^{86,87} Yii-Der Ida Chen,⁹ David R. Weir,⁸¹ Ulf de Faire,⁶² Ian J. Deary,^{51,104} Tõnu Esko,^{42,178} Martin Farrall,^{49,50} Terrence Forrester,⁶⁸ Barry I. Freedman,¹⁷⁹ Philippe Froguel,^{44,180} Paolo Gasparini,^{47,114} Christian Gieger,^{60,61,181} Bernardo Lessa Horta,⁵³ Yi-Jen Hung,¹⁸² Jost Bruno Jonas,^{172,183} Norihiro Kato,⁷⁸ Jaspal S. Kooner,^{87,160} Markku Laakso,⁷⁷ Terho Lehtimäki,^{66,67} Kae-Woei Liang,^{184,74,185} Patrik K.E. Magnusson,⁴⁵ Albertine J. Oldehinkel,¹⁸⁶ Alexandre C. Pereira,^{55,187} Thomas Perls,¹⁸⁸ Rainer Rauramaa,⁵⁹ Susan Redline,⁴¹ Rainer Rettig,^{83,189} Nilesh J. Samani,^{70,71} James Scott,¹⁶⁰ Xiao-Ou Shu,⁸⁴ Pim van der Harst,¹⁹⁰ Lynne E. Wagenknecht,¹⁹¹ Nicholas J. Wareham,⁶⁵ Hugh Watkins,^{49,50} Ananda R. Wickremasinghe,⁵⁸ Tangchun Wu,⁶⁹ Yoichiro Kamatani,³⁹ Cathy C. Laurie,¹³⁶ Claude Bouchard,³² Richard S. Cooper,³⁶ Michele K. Evans,³⁵ Vilundur Gudnason,^{33,34} James Hixson,¹² Sharon L.R. Kardia,³⁷ Stephen B. Kritchevsky,¹⁹² Bruce M. Psaty,^{193,194} Rob M. van Dam,^{20,195} Donna K. Arnett,¹⁹⁶ Dennis O. Mook-Kanamori,^{96,197} Myriam Fornage,²⁶ Ervin R. Fox,¹⁹⁸ Caroline Hayward,²² Cornelia M. van Duijn,²¹ E. Shyong Tai,^{195,20,120} Tien Yin Wong,^{17,18,19} Ruth J.F. Loos,^{16,199} Alex P. Reiner,¹²⁴ Charles N. Rotimi,⁵ Laura J. Bierut,²⁰⁰ Xiaofeng Zhu,⁸⁰ L. Adrienne Cupples,³⁸ Michael A. Province,⁶ Jerome I. Rotter,^{9,*} Paul W. Franks,^{79,201,202,*} Kenneth Rice,^{136,*} Paul Elliott,^{86,*} Mark J. Caulfield,^{7,8,*} W. James Gauderman,^{203,*} Patricia B. Munroe,^{7,8,*} Dabeeru C. Rao,^{1,*} Alanna C. Morrison,^{12,*}

1. Division of Biostatistics, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO 63110, USA.

2. Cardiovascular Division, Department of Medicine, Washington University, St. Louis, MO 63110, USA.
3. Department of Genetic Epidemiology, University of Regensburg, Regensburg, 93051, Germany.
4. Preventive Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, MA 02215, USA.
5. Center for Research on Genomics and Global Health, National Human Genome Research Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA.
6. Division of Statistical Genomics, Department of Genetics, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO 63108, USA.
7. Clinical Pharmacology, William Harvey Research Institute, Barts and The London School of Medicine and Dentistry, Queen Mary University of London, London, EC1M 6BQ, UK.
8. NIHR Barts Cardiovascular Biomedical Research Centre, Queen Mary University of London, London, London, EC1M 6BQ, UK.
9. The Institute for Translational Genomics and Population Sciences, Division of Genomic Outcomes, Department of Pediatrics, Los Angeles Biomedical Research Institute at Harbor-UCLA Medical Center, Torrance, CA 90502, USA.
10. Center for Human Genetics Research, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA 02114, USA.
11. Program in Medical and Population Genetics, Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA 02142, USA.

12. Human Genetics Center, Department of Epidemiology, Human Genetics, and Environmental Sciences, School of Public Health, The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, Houston, TX 77030, USA.
13. Department of Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA 02115, USA.
14. Centre de Bioinformatique, Biostatistique et Biologie Intégrative (C3BI), Institut Pasteur, Paris, 75724, France.
15. Epidemiology, University of North Carolina Gillings School of Global Public Health, Chapel Hill, NC 27514, USA.
16. Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, The Charles Bronfman Institute for Personalized Medicine, New York, NY 10029, USA.
17. Singapore Eye Research Institute, Singapore National Eye Centre, Singapore, 169856, Singapore.
18. Ophthalmology & Visual Sciences Academic Clinical Program (Eye ACP), Duke-NUS Medical School, Singapore, 169857, Singapore.
19. Department of Ophthalmology, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 117597, Singapore.
20. Saw Swee Hock School of Public Health, National University Health System and National University of Singapore, Singapore, 117549, Singapore.
21. Department of Epidemiology, Erasmus University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.
22. Medical Research Council Human Genetics Unit, MRC Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH4 2XU, UK.

23. Jackson Heart Study, Department of Medicine, University of Mississippi Medical Center, Jackson, MS 39213, USA.
24. Novo Nordisk Foundation Center for Basic Metabolic Research, Section of Metabolic Genetics, Faculty of Health and Medical Sciences, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, DK-2100, Denmark.
25. Department of Environmental Medicine and Public Health, The Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY 10029, USA.
26. Brown Foundation Institute of Molecular Medicine, The University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, Houston, TX 77030, USA.
27. Department of Epidemiology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL 35294, USA.
28. Cardiovascular Health Research Unit, Biostatistics and Medicine, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98101, USA.
29. Genome Institute of Singapore, Agency for Science Technology and Research, Singapore, 138672, Singapore.
30. Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of Georgia at Athens College of Public Health, Athens, GA 30602, USA.
31. Public Health Sciences, Epidemiology and Prevention, Wake Forest University Health Sciences, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.
32. Human Genomics Laboratory, Pennington Biomedical Research Center, Baton Rouge, LA 70808, USA.
33. Icelandic Heart Association, Kopavogur, 201, Iceland.
34. Faculty of Medicine, University of Iceland, Reykjavik, 101, Iceland.

35. Health Disparities Research Section, Laboratory of Epidemiology and Population Sciences, National Institute on Aging, National Institutes of Health, Baltimore, MD 21224, USA.
36. Department of Public Health Sciences, Loyola University Chicago, Maywood, IL 60153, USA.
37. Department of Epidemiology, School of Public Health, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA.
38. Biostatistics, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA 02118, USA.
39. Laboratory for Statistical Analysis, RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences, Yokohama, 230-0045, Japan.
40. Department of Medicine, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA , USA.
41. Division of Sleep and Circadian Disorders, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, MA , USA.
42. Estonian Genome Center, Institute of Genomics, University of Tartu, Tartu, 51010, Estonia.
43. Department of Epidemiology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Groningen, 9700 RB, The Netherlands.
44. CNRS UMR 8199, European Genomic Institute for Diabetes (EGID), Institut Pasteur de Lille, University of Lille, Lille, 59000, France.
45. Department of Medical Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Stockholm, 17177, Sweden.
46. Biostatistical Sciences, Public Health Sciences, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.

47. Department of Medical Sciences, University of Trieste, Trieste, 34137, Italy.
48. Molecular Genetics and Genomics Program, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.
49. Division of Cardiovascular Medicine, Radcliffe Department of Medicine, University of Oxford, Oxford, Oxfordshire, OX3 9DU, UK.
50. Wellcome Centre for Human Genetics, University of Oxford, Oxford, Oxfordshire, OX3 7BN, UK.
51. Centre for Cognitive Ageing and Cognitive Epidemiology, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH8 9JZ, UK.
52. Medical Genetics Section, University of Edinburgh Centre for Genomic and Experimental Medicine and MRC Institute of Genetics and Molecular Medicine, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH4 2XU, UK.
53. Postgraduate Programme in Epidemiology, Federal University of Pelotas, Pelotas, RS 96020220, Brazil.
54. Medical Research Council Integrative Epidemiology Unit, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK.
55. Lab Genetics and Molecular Cardiology, Cardiology, Heart Institute, University of Sao Paulo, Sao Paulo, CA, USA.
56. Department of Biostatistics and Center for Statistical Genetics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA.
57. Department of Human Genetics, Graduate School of Public Health, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15261, USA.

58. Department of Public Health, Faculty of Medicine, University of Kelaniya, Ragama, Sri Lanka.
59. Foundation for Research in Health Exercise and Nutrition, Kuopio Research Institute of Exercise Medicine, Kuopio 70100, Finland.
60. Research Unit of Molecular Epidemiology, Helmholtz Zentrum München, German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, 85764, Germany.
61. Institute of Epidemiology, Helmholtz Zentrum München, German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, 85764, Germany.
62. Institute of Environmental Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, 17177, Sweden.
63. Medical Research, Taichung Veterans General Hospital, Department of Social Work, Tunghai University, Taichung, 40705, Taiwan.
64. Ophthalmology, Taichung Veterans General Hospital, Taichung, 40705, Taiwan.
65. MRC Epidemiology Unit, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, CB2 0QQ, UK.
66. Department of Clinical Chemistry, Fimlab Laboratories, Tampere, 33520, Finland.
67. Department of Clinical Chemistry, Finnish Cardiovascular Research Center - Tampere, Faculty of Medicine and Life Sciences, University of Tampere, Tampere, 33014, Finland.
68. Tropical Metabolism Research Unit, Tropical Medicine Research Institute, University of the West Indies, Mona, JMAAW15, Jamaica.
69. School of Public Health, Department of Occupational and Environmental Health and State Key Laboratory of Environmental Health for Incubating, Tongji Medical College Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, China.

70. Department of Cardiovascular Sciences, University of Leicester, Leicester, LE3 9QP, UK.
71. NIHR Leicester Biomedical Research Centre, Glenfield Hospital, Leicester, LE3 9QP, UK.
72. Internal Medicine, Gerontology and Geriatrics, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, 2300RC, The Netherlands.
73. Endocrinology and Metabolism, Internal Medicine, Taichung Veterans General Hospital, Taichung, 40705, Taiwan.
74. School of Medicine, National Yang-ming University, Taipei, 70705, Taiwan.
75. School of Medicine, National Defense Medical Center, Taipei, 70705, Taiwan.
76. Institute of Medical Technology, National Chung-Hsing University, Taichung, 70705, Taiwan.
77. Institute of Clinical Medicine, Internal Medicine, University of Eastern Finland, Kuopio, 70210, Finland.
78. Department of Gene Diagnostics and Therapeutics, Research Institute, National Center for Global Health and Medicine, Tokyo, 1628655, Japan.
79. Department of Clinical Sciences, Genetic and Molecular Epidemiology Unit, Lund University Diabetes Centre, Skåne University Hospital, Malmö, SE-205 02, Sweden.
80. Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH 44106, USA.
81. Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48104, USA.

82. Interfaculty Institute for Genetics and Functional Genomics, University Medicine Ernst Moritz Arndt University Greifswald, Greifswald, 17487, Germany.
83. DZHK (German Centre for Cardiovascular Health), Partner Site Greifswald, Greifswald, 17475, Germany.
84. Division of Epidemiology, Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, TN 37203, USA.
85. General Internal Medicine, GeneSTAR Research Program, Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21287, USA.
86. MRC-PHE Centre for Environment and Health, Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Imperial College London, London, UK.
87. Department of Cardiology, Ealing Hospital, Middlesex, UK.
88. McKusick-Nathans Institute of Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21205, USA.
89. Departments of Medicine and Epidemiology, Columbia University Medical Center, New York, NY 10032, USA.
90. Human Genome Sequencing Center, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX 77030, USA.
91. Cardiovascular Health Research Unit, Medicine, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98101, USA.
92. Section of Genomic Pediatrics, Department of Pediatrics, Medicine and Physiology, Medical College of Wisconsin, Milwaukee, WI 53226, USA.
93. Centre for Genomic & Experimental Medicine, Institute of Genetics & Molecular Medicine, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH4 2XU, UK.

94. Medical Genomics and Metabolic Genetics Branch, National Human Genome Research Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA.
95. Ninewells Hospital & Medical School, University of Dundee, Dundee, Scotland, DD1 9SY, UK.
96. Clinical Epidemiology, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, 2300RC, The Netherlands.
97. Department of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine, University of Kelaniya, Ragama, Sri Lanka.
98. Department of Internal Medicine B, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, 17475, Germany.
99. Department of Genetics, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC27514, USA.
100. Department of Family Medicine and Epidemiology, Alpert Medical School of Brown University, Providence, RI 02912, USA.
101. Cardiology, Department of Specialties of Medicine, Geneva University Hospital, Geneva, 1211, Switzerland.
102. Department of Hygiene and Epidemiology, University of Ioannina Medical School, Ioannina, 45110, Greece.
103. Braun School of Public Health, Hebrew University-Hadassah Medical Center, Jerusalem, 91120, Israel.
104. Psychology, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH8 9JZ, UK.
105. Laboratory of Epidemiology and Population Sciences, National Institute on Aging, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA.

106. Epidemiology, Tulane University School of Public Health and Tropical Medicine, New Orleans, LA 70112, USA.
107. Medicine, Tulane University School of Medicine, New Orleans, LA 70112, USA.
108. Institute of Biomedicine, School of Medicine, University of Eastern Finland, Kuopio Campus, 70211, Finland.
109. Department of Paediatrics, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 119228, Singapore.
110. Khoo Teck Puat – National University Children's Medical Institute, National University Health System, Singapore, 119228, Singapore.
111. MedStar Health Research Institute, Hyattsville, MD 20782, USA.
112. Center for Clinical and Translational Sciences and Department of Medicine, Georgetown-Howard Universities, Washington, DC 20057, USA.
113. Division of Epidemiology, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Utah School of Medicine, Salt Lake City, UT 84132, USA.
114. Department of Genetic Medicine, Weill Cornell Medicine, Doha, Qatar.
115. Department of Biostatistics, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL 35294, USA.
116. Department of Clinical Gene Therapy, Osaka University Graduate School of Medicine, Suita, 5650871, Japan.
117. Department of Geriatric Medicine and Nephrology, Osaka University Graduate School of Medicine, Suita, 5650871, Japan.
118. Epidemiology, Occupational and Environmental Medicine Program, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98105, USA.

119. Department of Biochemistry, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 117596, Singapore.
120. Health Services and Systems Research, Duke-NUS Medical School, Singapore, 169857, Singapore.
121. Department of Public Health Solutions, National Institute for Health and Welfare, Helsinki, 00271, Finland.
122. Department of Medicine and Abdominal Center: Endocrinology, University of Helsinki and Helsinki University Central Hospital, Helsinki, 00271, Finland.
123. Minerva Foundation Institute for Medical Research, Biomedicum 2U, Helsinki, Finland.
124. Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, University of Washington School of Public Health, Seattle, WA 98109, USA.
125. RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences, Yokohama, 230-0045, Japan.
126. Institute of Social Preventive Medicine, Lausanne University Hospital, Lausanne, Switzerland.
127. Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, Lausanne, Switzerland.
128. Department of Clinical Physiology and Nuclear Medicine, Kuopio University Hospital, Kuopio, Finland.
129. Sergievsky Center, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University Mailman School of Public Health, New York, NY 10032, USA.
130. NHLBI Framingham Heart Study, Framingham, MA 01702, USA.
131. The Population Sciences Branch, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA.

132. Department of Medicine, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL 35205, USA.
133. Lifelines Cohort, Groningen 9700 RB, The Netherlands.
134. WHI CCC, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA 98115, USA.
135. Translational Laboratory in Genetic Medicine, Agency for Science, Technology and Research, 138648, Singapore.
136. Department of Biostatistics, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98105, USA.
137. Laboratory for Clinical Genome Sequencing, Department of Computational Biology and Medical Sciences, Graduate School of Frontier Sciences, The University of Tokyo, Minato-ku, 108-8639, Japan.
138. Institute of Human Genetics, Helmholtz Zentrum München, German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, 85764, Germany.
139. Institute of Human Genetics, Technische Universität München, Munich, 80333, Germany.
140. Laboratory for Genotyping Development, RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences, Yokohama, 230-0045, Japan.
141. Geriatrics, Medicine, University of Mississippi, Jackson, MS 39216, USA.
142. Laboratory of Neurogenetics, National Institute on Aging, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA.
143. Division of Endocrinology, Diabetes, and Nutrition, University of Maryland School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21201, USA.
144. Program for Personalized and Genomic Medicine, University of Maryland School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21201, USA.

145. Department of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.
146. Internal Medicine, Columbia University, New York, NY 10032, USA.
147. Biochemistry, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.
148. Division of Epidemiology and Community Health, University of Minnesota School of Public Health, Minneapolis, MN 55454, USA.
149. DZHK (German Centre for Cardiovascular Research), partner site Munich Heart Alliance, Neuherberg, 85764, Germany.
150. Department of Public Health, Department of Medicine, University of Split, Split, Croatia.
151. Psychiatric Hospital "Sveti Ivan", Zagreb, Croatia.
152. Gen-info Ltd, Zagreb, Croatia.
153. Department of Clinical Physiology and Nuclear Medicine, Turku University Hospital, Turku, 20521, Finland.
154. Research Centre of Applied and Preventive Cardiovascular Medicine, University of Turku, Turku, 20520, Finland.
155. Department of Biobank Research, Umeå University, Umeå, Västerbotten, SE-901 87, Sweden.
156. Institute for Maternal and Child Health - IRCCS "Burlo Garofolo", 34137, Trieste, Italy.
157. Department of Epidemiology and Medicine, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242, USA.
158. Centre for Global Health Research, Usher Institute of Population Health Sciences and Informatics, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH8 9AG, UK.

159. Institute for Community Medicine, University Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, 17475, Germany.
160. National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, London, W12 0NN, UK.
161. International Centre for Circulatory Health, Imperial College London, London, W2 1PG, UK.
162. Division of Population Health Sciences, Ninewells Hospital and Medical School, University of Dundee, Dundee, UK.
163. Alzheimer Scotland Dementia Research Centre, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, EH8 9JZ, UK.
164. Institute of Genetic Epidemiology, Helmholtz Zentrum München, German Research Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, 85764, Germany.
165. Chair of Genetic Epidemiology, IBE, Faculty of Medicine, LMU, Munich, 80539, Germany.
166. Department of Genetics, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA.
167. Life Sciences Institute, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 117456, Singapore.
168. NUS Graduate School for Integrative Science and Engineering, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 117456, Singapore.
169. Department of Statistics and Applied Probability, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 117546, Singapore.
170. Department of Internal Medicine, Erasmus University Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.

171. Beijing Institute of Ophthalmology, Beijing Tongren Eye Center, Beijing Ophthalmology and Visual Science Key Lab, Beijing Tongren Hospital, Capital Medical University, Beijing, 100730, China.
172. Beijing Tongren Eye Center, Beijing Tongren Hospital, Capital Medical University, Beijing, 100730, China.
173. Jackson Heart Study, School of Public Health, Jackson State University, Jackson, MS 39213, USA.
174. State Key Laboratory of Oncogene and Related Genes & Department of Epidemiology, Shanghai Cancer Institute, Renji Hospital, Shanghai Jiaotong University School of Medicine, Shanghai, P.R. China.
175. Department of Epidemiology, Graduate School of Public Health, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15261, USA.
176. Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences, UPMC Hillman Cancer, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA 15232, USA.
177. Behavioral Epidemiology Section, Laboratory of Epidemiology and Population Sciences, National Institute on Aging, National Institutes of Health, Baltimore, MD 21224, USA.
178. Broad Institute of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University, Boston, MA 02142, USA.
179. Nephrology, Internal Medicine, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.
180. Department of Genomics of Common Disease, Imperial College London, London, W12 0NN, UK.

181. German Center for Diabetes Research (DZD e.V.), Neuherberg, 85764, Germany.
182. Endocrinology and Metabolism, Tri-Service General Hospital, National Defense Medical Center, Taipei City, Taipei, 11490, Taiwan.
183. Department of Ophthalmology, Medical Faculty Mannheim, University Heidelberg, Mannheim, Germany, 68167, Germany.
184. Cardiovascular Center, Taichung Veterans General Hospital, Taichung, 40705, Taiwan.
185. Department of Medicine, China Medical University, Taichung, 40705, Taiwan.
186. Department of Psychiatry, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Groningen, 9700 RB, The Netherlands.
187. Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115, USA.
188. Geriatrics Section, Boston University Medical Center, Boston, MA 02118, USA.
189. Institute of Physiology, University of Medicine Greifswald, Greifswald, 17495, Germany.
190. Department of Cardiology, University of Groningen, University Medical Center Groningen, Groningen, 9700 RB, The Netherlands.
191. Public Health Sciences, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.
192. Department of Internal Medicine, Section on Gerontology and Geriatric Medicine, Wake Forest School of Medicine, Winston-Salem, NC 27157, USA.
193. Cardiovascular Health Research Unit, Epidemiology, Medicine and Health Services, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98101, USA.
194. Kaiser Permanente Washington, Health Research Institute, Seattle, WA 98101, USA.

195. Department of Medicine, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore, Singapore, 119228, Singapore.
196. Dean's Office, University of Kentucky College of Public Health, Lexington, KY 40508, USA.
197. Public Health and Primary Care, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden 2300RC, Leiden.
198. Cardiology, Medicine, University of Mississippi Medical Center, Jackson, MS 39216, USA.
199. Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, The Mindich Child Health and Development Institute, New York, NY 10029, USA.
200. Department of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, MO 63110, USA.
201. Harvard T. H. Chan School of Public Health, Department of Nutrition, Harvard University, Boston, MA 02115, USA.
202. Department of Public Health & Clinical Medicine, Umeå University, Umeå, Västerbotten, Sweden.
203. Biostatistics, Preventive Medicine, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA 90032, USA.

* Writing group

Address Correspondence to:

Yun Ju Sung

Washington University School of Medicine

Division of Biostatistics

Campus Box 8067

660 S. Euclid Ave.

St. Louis, MO 63110-1093

Phone: (314) 362-0053

FAX: (314) 362-2693

Email: yunju@wustl.edu

Abstract

Elevated blood pressure (BP), a leading cause of global morbidity and mortality, is influenced by both genetic and lifestyle factors. Cigarette smoking is one such lifestyle factor. Across five ancestries, we performed a genome-wide gene-smoking interaction study of mean arterial pressure (MAP) and pulse pressure (PP) in 129,913 individuals in stage 1 and follow-up analysis in 480,178 additional individuals in stage 2. We report here 136 loci significantly associated with MAP and/or PP. Of these, 61 were previously published through main-effect analysis of BP traits, 37 were recently reported by us for SBP and/or DBP through gene-smoking interaction analysis, and 38 were newly identified ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$, $FDR < 0.05$). We also identified 9 new signals near known loci. Eight of the 136 loci showed significant interaction with smoking status. They include *CSMD1* previously reported for insulin resistance and BP in the spontaneously hypertensive rats. Many of the 38 new loci show biologic plausibility for a role in BP regulation. *SLC26A7* encodes a chloride/bicarbonate-exchanger expressed in the renal outer medullary collecting duct. *AVPR1A* is widely expressed including in vascular smooth muscle cells, kidney, myocardium, and brain. *FHADI* is a long non-coding RNA overexpressed in heart failure. *TMEM51* was associated with contractile function in cardiomyocytes. *CASP9* plays a central role in cardiomyocyte apoptosis. Thirty novel loci were identified only in African ancestry. Our findings highlight the value of multi-ancestry investigations, particularly in studies of interaction with lifestyle factors, where genomic and lifestyle differences may contribute to novel findings.

Introduction

Elevated blood pressure (BP), a leading cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide, is known to be influenced by both genetic and lifestyle factors. To date genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified over 1000 loci associated with BP and hypertension (1-10). The effects of genetic variants on BP may manifest differently depending on lifestyle exposures. Therefore, incorporating gene-environment (GxE) interactions may identify additional loci (11, 12). We established the Gene-Lifestyle Interactions Working Group within the Cohorts for Heart and Aging Research in Genomic Epidemiology (CHARGE) Consortium in order to assess the impact of interactions with multiple lifestyle factors on the genetics of cardiovascular traits (13). Among many lifestyle factors, cigarette smoking influences BP in both acute (14) and chronic (15) fashion, motivating genetic association studies of gene-by-smoking interactions.

Recently we reported findings from a genome-wide association meta-analysis incorporating gene-smoking interactions for systolic BP (SBP) and diastolic BP (DBP) (16). In addition to SBP and DBP, blood pressure can also be characterized as having both steady and pulsatile components, each determined by different physiologic properties of the heart and vasculature, and differently related to cardiovascular outcomes. Mean arterial pressure (MAP) reflects the steady component of BP, which is predominantly determined by cardiac output and systemic vascular resistance and regulated by small artery and arteriole tone (17). MAP has been found to be more “informative” than SBP and DBP in predicting mortality from CVD including stroke and ischemic heart disease (18, 19). Pulse pressure (PP) represents the pulsatile component of BP and is largely determined by cardiac stroke volume and large artery stiffness (17, 20). PP has been found to be predictive of coronary heart disease risk, and in some cases superior to both SBP and DBP, in particular for older adults (21, 22). Thus, while SBP is

prioritized as the primary treatment target for hypertension (23), MAP and PP continue to be relevant BP traits for investigation. Understanding their biological underpinnings may lead to discovery of new BP pathways.

In this study, we performed a genome-wide association meta-analysis of MAP and PP incorporating gene-smoking interactions (**Figure 1**). The aim is to evaluate whether any of the previously identified BP loci are modified by smoking, whether interactions can be identified using a genome-wide approach, and whether additional novel BP loci can be identified by accounting for potential SNP-smoking interactions. Here, we report our findings through a 2 degrees of freedom (DF) test that jointly evaluates genetic main and interaction effects (24) based on 610,091 individuals across five ancestries.

Results

Overview

Across five ancestries, we performed a genome-wide gene-smoking interaction study of MAP and PP in 129,913 individuals in stage 1 and follow-up analysis in 480,178 additional individuals in stage 2 (**Tables S1-S6**). Through genome-wide search in stage 1, we identified 1,692 significant ($P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$) and 2,681 suggestive ($P \leq 10^{-6}$) variants associated with MAP and/or PP. Of these 4,373 variants, 2,982 variants were replicated in stage 2 with $P < 0.05/4,373$ (to an aggregate replication rate of 68.2%). Of the 1,692 significant variants in stage 1, a total of 1,449 were replicated in stage 2 with $P < 0.05/1,692$ to a replication rate of 85.6%. Among the genome-wide significant variants in stage 1, which resided in 112 loci (defined by physical distance ± 1 Mb), 53 loci were formally replicated in stage 2 using Bonferroni-adjusted significance levels ($P < 0.05/112$). Most of the remaining 59 loci were identified in African or

Hispanic ancestries in stage 1, which quite plausibly failed to replicate in stage 2 due to these smaller sample sizes and hence lack of power. For 10 loci, no additional data were available in stage 2 and, therefore, it was not possible to check for replication. All of these formally replicated loci had been identified previously; 44 through main effects GWAS (1-8), and 9 through gene-smoking interaction analysis we reported recently for SBP and DBP (16). For these 9 formally replicated loci, estimates of the genetic main effects were all consistent between stages 1 and 2; estimates of SNP-smoking interaction effects were not statistically significant (**Table S7**).

We performed meta-analysis combining stages 1 and 2 (Manhattan plots **Figure S1**; Quantile-quantile, QQ, plots **Figure S2**). Through this combined analysis with 610,091 individuals, we identified 136 loci that were associated with MAP and/or PP at genome-wide significance ($P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$). Of these, sixty-one loci were previously published through main effects GWAS for any BP trait (1-8); thirty-seven loci (presented in **Table S7**) were recently reported by us for SBP and/or DBP through gene-smoking interaction analysis (16); and the remaining 38 loci are newly reported here (**Table 2**).

Among the 136 loci associated with MAP and/or PP, 38 loci are completely new and at least 1Mb away from any of known BP loci. Sixteen novel loci passed a more stringent threshold ($p < 6.25 \times 10^{-9}$, adjusted for 2 smoking exposures, 2 tests, and 2 BP traits). We also identified 9 additional new signals within the known BP loci but not in linkage disequilibrium (LD), $r^2 < 0.1$, with known BP loci (**Table 3**). Among the 9 identified signals, 4 signals were identified in trans-ancestry, and the remaining 5 were ancestry-specific (2 European, 2 African, and 1 Hispanic signals). The LocusZoom plots for these completely novel 38 loci and 9 signals are shown in

Figure S3. As shown in Venn diagram (**Figure 2**), among 38 new loci and 9 signals, 38 were newly PP-associated, and 12 were newly MAP-associated (with 3 common between PP and MAP). These were not associated with SBP or DBP. FDR q-values provided additional evidence for these newly-identified loci (FDR < 0.01 for 43 of the 47; and FDR < 0.05 for all 47 loci or signals).

Table S8 presents more detailed results for the lead variants representing the 136 loci and the 9 signals associated with MAP and PP: ancestry-specific and trans-ancestry meta-analysis results within each stage (1 and 2); ancestry-specific and trans-ancestry meta-analysis results combining stages 1 and 2. Scatterplots comparing ancestry-specific genetic effects at these variants are presented in **Figure S4**. Genetic effects between European and Hispanic ancestries had the highest correlation (0.79), whereas those between African and Hispanic ancestries had the lowest correlation (0.29).

The Role of Interactions

Among the 136 loci and 9 new signals associated with MAP and/or PP, variants at eight loci showed genome-wide significant interactions (1 DF interaction $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) with smoking status (**Figure 3**). All 8 loci were identified with current smoking status; these variants have larger effects in current smokers than in non-current smokers. Of the 8 loci, six loci showed increasing effects on BP in current-smokers. Five interactions were newly identified (**Table 2**), and the other 3 were previously reported for SBP or DBP (**Table S7**). These variants showing interaction effects were identified only in individuals of African ancestry in stage 1. These variants were not present in stage 2 because of the limited sample size (ranges from 418 to 1,993) of stage 2 African ancestry cohorts, and therefore replication of these interactions was not possible.

BP Variance Explained

Within each of the smoking strata, we computed the variance of MAP and PP explained by genome-wide results (25) in European ancestry (**Figure 4**). The independent set of variants, 38 for MAP and 12 for PP, with $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ explained 1.9% of variance in MAP and 0.5% of variance in PP. The difference in explained variance between the smokers and non-smokers was not significant, suggesting that BP variance explained by interaction effects is very small. Similar inference was observed with the results from ever-smoking status (data not shown).

Functional Inferences

To obtain functional annotations from HaploReg (26), we focused on the index variants representing the 84 loci (38 novel loci, 9 new signals near known loci, and 37 recently reported) that showed association with MAP and/or PP. There was one missense variant, rs1009382. Of the remaining non-coding variants (37 intronic and 51 intergenic), 15 were in promoter histone marks, 47 in enhancer histone marks, 28 in DNase I marks, and 8 altered the binding sites of regulatory proteins (**Table S9**). Using GERP (27), 5 variants were identified as being conserved among vertebrates, with 3 variants identified as such using SiPhy (28). For 27 variants, *cis*-eQTL evidence was available with varying degrees of association with expression probes. In particular, 10 of them were identified by GTEx (29) as *cis*-eQTLs across various tissues (**Table S9**). In addition, we obtained information on microarray-based gene and exon expression levels in whole blood from over 5,000 individuals of the Framingham Heart Study (30) (**Table S10**). There were 109 variant-transcript pairs (representing 26 variants) with *cis*-eQTL evidence (at $P < 8.9 \times 10^{-5}$, FDR < 0.002). Among 26 variants (**Table S10**), the 3 variants had the most abundant evidence of *cis*-eQTL association: rs112947839, rs1009382, and rs7753826 associated with 21, 18, and 10 transcripts, respectively.

The DEPICT analyses prioritized genes ($\text{FDR} < 5\%$) at 40 loci, including 16 genes that did not match the nearest gene of the identified lead variant (**Table S11**). Furthermore, the analyses highlighted 56 significantly ($\text{FDR} < 5\%$) enriched gene sets. Many of these highlight cardiovascular mechanisms, such as ‘abnormal blood vessel morphology’, ‘thin myocardium’ or ‘abnormal heart development’, **Table S12**). We also observed that genome-wide significant MAP and PP loci are enriched for genes expressed in the ileum (**Table S13**).

Associations of BP Loci with Cardiometabolic Traits

We obtained association results of the 84 index variants associated with MAP or PP (representing 38 novel loci, 9 new signals near known loci, and 37 recently reported loci) with multiple cardiometabolic traits: coronary artery disease (CAD), stroke, adiposity, diabetes, and renal function (**Tables S14-S19**). For 36 out of 47 scenarios (highlighted in red, **Table S20**), the observed number of variants with nominal evidence of association ($P < 0.05$) was higher than that expected by chance alone ($P_{\text{Binomial}} < 0.05/11$, corrected for 11 traits used in the lookups). For example, we observed 7 and 11 such associations with CAD and myocardial infarction, respectively, where the expected count is 2.2 for both traits. Corroborating evidence of the multiple cardiometabolic traits were found for the two of the 38 new loci: (rs146622638, *GPM6A*; rs12156238, *FAM167A*) and the five of the 9 new signals near known BP loci (rs2071405, *AGT*; rs1009382, *TNXB*; rs7005363, *MSRA*; rs1010064, *LOC100506393*; rs201028933, *LOC338758*). These overlapping signals support that these traits may share a common pathophysiology.

Loci Overlapping with Previously Reported SBP or DBP Loci

Among the loci that were reported by us recently as significantly associated with SBP and/or DBP based on gene-by-smoking interaction analysis (16), thirty-seven loci were also

associated with MAP and/or PP (**Table S7**). Among them, 9 loci were formally replicated in stage 2 and showed association with all 4 BP traits. Variants at these nine loci were all also genome-wide significant in the combined analysis of stages 1 and 2 in individuals of European ancestry. For variants at six of the nine loci, there was supporting evidence of association in individuals of non-European ancestry, which resulted in stronger statistical significance from trans-ancestry analysis. One such locus was rs351364 (in *WNT2B*), where only trans-ancestry analysis reached genome-wide significance in stage 1; the direction of the genetic effect was consistent across all ancestries (with 2DF $P = 2.8 \times 10^{-31}$; **Table S7**).

New Signals near Known BP Loci

Nine new signals were identified near known BP loci (but not in LD, $r^2 < 0.1$). One such signal was rs140881076 (chr1:15364113, 2DF $P = 3.3 \times 10^{-14}$, **Figure 5A**) in association with PP in individuals of African ancestry. This signal is 434 kb away and in complete linkage equilibrium with *CELA2A* locus (rs3820068, chr1:15798197) which was recently identified in individuals of European ancestry (7, 31). Several nearby genes have been implicated in cardiovascular traits. *FHADI* is a long non-coding RNA overexpressed in heart failure (32), *TMEM51* has been associated with contractile function in cardiomyocytes (33), and *CASP9* plays a central role in cardiomyocyte apoptosis (34). A candidate gene study identified a missense mutation in *CASP9* as associated with ischemic stroke in Koreans (35), Differential methylation patterns in *TMEM51* have also been described in peripheral blood leukocytes of smokers (36, 37).

Through trans-ancestry analysis, we identified one locus (rs1010064) associated with both MAP and PP (2DF $P = 5.9 \times 10^{-11}$). This is ~500 kb upstream of but not in LD with *PDE3A*, a known BP gene with a role in regulating growth in vascular smooth muscle cells (4, 38). Missense mutations in *PDE3A* have been linked with autosomal dominant syndrome

characterized by treatment-resistant hypertension and brachydactyly (39, 40). SNPs in this locus have also shown suggestive associations with aortic root diameter (41), resistant hypertension (42), and SBP in a SNP-alcohol consumption interaction analysis (43).

Biological Relevance of Newly Identified BP Loci

Several genes near the 38 novel loci show biologic plausibility for a role in BP regulation. One such gene is *CSMD1* (rs140994551, chr8:4449086, associated with PP in individuals of African ancestry while considering interaction with current smoking status, 2DF $P=2.1 \times 10^{-11}$, **Figure 5B**). In animal models, variants in *CSMD1* were associated with both insulin resistance and BP in the spontaneously hypertensive rats (44). In humans, there was suggestive evidence of association with hypertension in two Korean cohorts (45), with peripheral artery disease in a Japanese population (46), with waist-hip ratio adjusted for BMI in men (47), with insulin resistance in African Americans (48), and with studies of addiction and related disorders (49). Another new locus is *LRRC69* (rs11991823, chr8:92188440, associated with PP, identified through trans-ancestry analysis, 2DF $P=1.3 \times 10^{-15}$, **Figure 5C**). A copy number variant in this gene has been shown to be weakly associated ($P = 0.04$) with BP in a Korean population (50). The nearby gene *SLC26A7* encodes a chloride/bicarbonate-exchanger expressed specifically in the renal outer medullary collecting duct (51). Two PP loci include genes involved in the NF κ B signaling pathway (*TNFRSF11A* and *NFIB*). This inflammatory pathway has been implicated in hypertension-induced renal dysfunction in murine models (52), and with endothelial dysfunction in overweight/obese and older humans (53). There was suggested evidence of association of variants in *TNFRSF11A* with BP traits in Chinese women (54).

A new locus near *AVPR1A* (rs146924684 chr12:63437286, associated with MAP, 2DF $P=5.3 \times 10^{-9}$, **Figure 5D**) also has strong biologic plausibility. Vasopressin is an antidiuretic

hormone and a potent vasoconstrictor that exerts its effect through activation of a family of receptors, including the arginine vasopressin receptor subtype 1A (*AVPR1A*) which is widely expressed including in vascular smooth muscle cells, kidney, myocardium, and brain (55). In glomerular macula densa cells, *AVPR1A* facilitates activation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system and increases expression of the aquaporin 2 water channel (56). *AVPR1A* stimulation is also necessary for maintaining normal BP; in murine knockout models, basal BP is significantly decreased and the arterial baroreceptor reflex markedly impaired (57). Notably, there is data to support a role for vasopressin not only in the maintenance, but also in the development, of hypertension. Vasopressin receptor 1A blockade in young, still normotensive, spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) attenuates the later development of hypertension in adult SHR despite withdrawal of drug therapy (58).

We identified several loci with potential relevance to the structure and function of primary cilia, in addition to those we reported recently (16). Three PP-associated loci were near genes implicated with nephronophthisis, including those with mutations linked to Bardet-Biedl Syndrome (*BBS7* and *MYO3A*) and with Joubert Syndrome (*AHII*). Another PP-associated locus was near *NEDD4L*, which encodes the E3 ubiquitin ligase NEDD4-2 and has been shown to regulate a renal epithelial sodium channel (ENaC/*SCNN1*) that is critical for maintenance of sodium homeostasis (59). ENaC is the channel responsible for the monogenetic disorder of BP regulation, Liddle Syndrome. Loss of NEDD4-2 in the renal tubules results in increased activity of the ENaC channel, resulting in salt-sensitive hypertension (60). Candidate gene studies identified variants in *NEDD4L* as associated with sodium lithium countertransport (61), hypertension (62), treatment response to β -blockers, and diuretics in hypertensive patients (62-64).

We identified two additional loci with potential relevance to the dopaminergic system, in addition to those we reported recently (16). Dopamine signaling plays a key role in both central and peripheral BP regulation (65-67). A regulatory subunit (*PPP2R2A*) of the dopamine receptor 2R (D2R) was associated with MAP. In murine renal proximal tubule cells, inhibition of this regulatory protein leads to increased expression of markers of renal inflammation and injury (68). A newly identified MAP-associated locus *SESN2* is also related to the dopaminergic system; activation of the D2R has been shown to increase the expression of *SESN2*, which protects the kidney against renal oxidative stress (69). *SESN2* also protects endothelial cell lines against angiotensin II-induced endothelial toxicity (70). Two additional loci include genes involved in dopamine signaling: *ATP13A2* (71) and *ARPP21* (72). Activation of dopamine centers of the brain has also been implicated in drug and nicotine abuse (73).

In addition, we found a PP-associated locus near *SDHB*, which encodes the mitochondrial protein succinate dehydrogenase. Variants in this gene have been identified in individuals with carotid body tumors and pheochromocytomas/paragangliomas, endocrine tumors that secrete dopamine and/or norepinephrine and can modulate BP regulation even when tumors are not clinically apparent (74, 75). Variants near this locus have been marginally associated with DBP in pre-pubertal European children (76). Tyrosinase (with its related protein, TYRP1) catalyzes the first rate-limiting step in pathway in the formation of L-Dopa (77). Although variants in *TYRP1* were suggestively associated with SBP by the International Consortium for Blood Pressure (78), we identified this locus as associated with PP at genome-wide significance.

Discussion

Mean arterial pressure (MAP) measures the steady component, which is a function of the left ventricular contractility, heart rate, small-artery resistance and vascular elasticity averaged over time (17). Pulse pressure (PP) measures the pulsatile component, which is a function of the left ventricular stroke volume, large-artery stiffness, early pulse wave reflection, and heart rate (19). These BP traits not only differ in their physiologic properties but are also differently related to cardiovascular outcomes (17, 19, 79, 80). Our genome-wide association meta-analysis incorporating gene-smoking interactions identified 136 loci significantly-associated with MAP and/or PP: 61 were previously published through main-effect GWAS analysis (1-8), 37 were recently reported by us for SBP and/or DBP through gene-smoking interaction analysis (16), 38 are newly reported here. Our analysis also identified 9 new signals near known BP loci (but not in LD, $r^2 < 0.1$).

Among the loci significantly associated with MAP and/or PP, 8 loci showed significant interaction with smoking status from the 1 DF interaction tests. At these 8 loci, the joint 2 DF P-values ranged from 1×10^{-7} to 5×10^{-11} , indicating that loci were identified mostly because of their interaction with smoking status. We observed that the genetic effect at these loci is negligible in non-smokers but larger in smokers. As such, a drug that targets this locus with strong interactions may achieve a greater treatment effect among smokers than non-smokers; elevated BP may be treated in smokers using such a drug, whereas the same drug is unlikely to be effective in non-smokers. Alternatively, physicians may counsel patients on specific antihypertensive drugs that they may obtain greater treatment effect if they modify their exposure (e.g., smoking cessation). While precision medicine interventions are still emerging in cardiovascular care, a consideration of interaction effects lays an important foundation. In

addition to drug targeting, a smoking interaction can also help us to identify novel biological mechanisms underlying blood pressure traits.

One such locus showing significant interaction with smoking status is *CSMD1*. While variants of this gene were previously suggested for addiction and related disorders (49), we identified this locus at genome-wide significance (1 DF $P = 4.3 \times 10^{-9}$, 2 DF $P = 2.1 \times 10^{-11}$). In our study, another locus near *AHR* showed weak evidence of interaction with smoking (1 DF $P = 1.6 \times 10^{-4}$, 2 DF $P = 1.7 \times 10^{-9}$ associated with MAP). Variants in *AHR* are shown to interact with variants in *CYP1A1*, a detoxifying enzyme, to explain BP differences between smokers and non-smokers (81). *AHR* encodes a ligand-activated transcription factor, and *AHR* knock-out mice have increased MAP and ventricular hypertrophy/fibrosis with increased plasma levels of angiotensin II (82). Given the evidence that environmental toxins, including tobacco smoke, activate AHR, it is pertinent to note that AHR, in turn, activates tyrosinase activity, the rate limiting step for L-dopa biosynthesis (77). Activation of the AHR protein represses T-cadherin expression, which functions as a negative growth regulator in vascular smooth muscle cells (83, 84). T-cadherin (encoded by *CDH13*) has been previously identified as a BP susceptibility locus (85). Notably, while the endogenous ligand for AHR remains uncertain (86), exogenous ligands include polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons which are found in tobacco smoke and other environmental pollutants (87).

We found that most of MAP-associated loci were previously associated with SBP and/or DBP. This is not surprising given that MAP is closely related physiologically to SBP and DBP. In contrast, analysis of PP yielded a greater number of novel significant loci that are unique to PP. Loci associated with PP may be identifying different physiologic processes than loci associated with MAP, SBP, and DBP. For example, the steady component of BP can be

effectively targeted by β -adrenergic receptor and calcium-channel blockers that both modulate arteriolar tone. Angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, which favor remodeling of vascular connective tissue, may impact PP to a greater extent (88). This is a clinically important concept since hypertension is often more effectively treated by combination drug therapy to target different physiologic pathways (89).

We identified 30 loci that were statistically significant only in the meta-analyses of African ancestry individuals (forest plots in **Figure S5**). Due to many prior BP GWAS discoveries, mostly based on European or Asian ancestries, identifying new BP loci in European and Asian ancestries may be challenging. There are also more opportunities to identify lower frequency variants in African ancestry individuals because there are more of these variants in this genetically more diverse population (with correspondingly smaller LD blocks, allowing closer identification of multiple underlying causal variants). The observed effect sizes (in African ancestry, **Figure 3**) may be larger than their true values due to winners' curse (90). All identified loci were in low frequency (with MAF ranging from 1.2% to 3.1%) but had good imputation quality scores ranging from 0.62 to 0.95 (presented in **Figure S5**). In many of these loci, forest plots show consistent association across the contributing African cohorts. Twenty-three (out of 30) loci were only present in African ancestry, and therefore these associations could not be effectively evaluated in other ancestry groups as a result of their inter-ancestry differences in MAF. Because of the limited sample sizes available for African ancestry in stage 2, genome-wide significant loci in stage 1 African ancestry could not be formally replicated in stage 2; only the largest African cohort in stage 2 (HRS, N=1,993) provided association results for a subset of 23 loci (**Figure S5**). For the remaining 7 loci, we found evidence of association in African ancestry but not in meta-analyses in other ancestries, despite comparable or higher allele

frequencies, such as were observed with rs11587661 (*COG2*) or rs72723039 (*IRX2*). We found similar smoking-specific effects on lipid traits that were unique to African ancestry (Bentley et al, Nature Genetics, in press). They may relate at least in part to inter-ancestry differences, including preference of menthol cigarettes. Therefore, African-specific loci should be treated cautiously since they require further validation.

This large-scale multi-ancestry study has some limitations. First, because most of the known BP loci were identified in European and Asian ancestries, considerable effort was made to recruit most of the available studies from the other ancestries into stage 1. Although we were able to identify several new loci in African ancestry, the relatively smaller stage 2 sample size of African ancestry (N=7,786) has limited our ability to replicate these new loci. Second, some of our new loci identified through the 2DF joint test may have been identified due to a main effect because of a larger sample size and more diverse ancestries, not necessarily from gene-smoking interaction. Unfortunately, we are unable to verify this because analysis of main effects alone, without regard to smoking status, was not performed. Third, conditional analysis (such as GCTA) based on summary statistics was not performed because valid methods do not currently exist for GxE interactions. Therefore, we relied on a relatively more stringent LD threshold ($r^2 < 0.1$) for identifying additional signals within the known BP loci. Fourth, if there is a gene-environment correlation, a potential confounding of GxE with interaction between covariate and smoking exposure may exist. This can inflate Type I error of the GxE interaction test (91).

In summary, this study identified 38 new loci and 9 new signals near known BP loci that are uniquely associated with MAP and/or PP (and not associated with SBP or DBP), demonstrating the promise of gene-lifestyle interactions for genetic and environmental dissection of BP traits. Ten of our 38 loci were within 1Mb of those recently reported by both Evangelou et

al (9) and Giri et al (10); six loci were African-specific. Additional seven loci (including four African-specific loci) were within 1Mb of those reported by Evangelou et al (9). Variants in several loci were identified in individuals of African ancestry, highlighting the importance of genetic studies in diverse populations. Many of these new loci (including *CSMD1*, *TMEM51*, *SLC26A7*, *TNFRSF11A*, and *AVPR1A*) show biologic plausibility for a role in BP regulation. They include additional loci of potential relevance to the structure and function of primary cilia and the dopaminergic system. Understanding underlying mechanisms for the newly identified loci and biological insights into the genetics of blood pressure traits will require further investigation. Eight out of 136 significant loci showed significant interaction with smoking status. Because some interactions may be driven by other lifestyle factors that are correlated with smoking, a follow-up study such as Tyrrell and her colleague (92) that jointly examines multiple lifestyle factors can shed light on further understanding of the nature of the smoking interaction effects on BP. Our findings highlight the value of multi-ancestry investigations, particularly in studies of interaction with lifestyle factors, where genomic and lifestyle differences may contribute to novel findings.

Materials and Methods

Participating Studies

Analyses included men and women between 18-80 years of age from European (EUR), African (AFR), Asian (ASN), Hispanic (HIS), and Brazilian (BRZ) ancestries. Forty-eight cohorts consisting of 129,913 individuals (80,552 EUR; 27,118 AFR; 13,438 ASN; 8,805 HSP; **Table S1**) participated in stage 1 and performed genome-wide analyses. Studies that included data from multiple ancestries (cohorts) contributed multiple analyses, one for each

ancestry/cohort. For example, MESA has four cohorts. Seventy-six additional cohorts consisting of 480,178 individuals (305,513 EUR; 7,826 AFR; 148,932 ASN; 13,533 HSP; 4,414 BRZ; **Table S2**) participated in stage 2 and performed association analyses of 4,373 variants that were identified in stage 1 as either genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) or suggestive ($P < 10^{-6}$). ASN participants include both south Asian and east Asians. Stage 1 ASN includes 7,873 east Asians and 5,566 south Asians, whereas stage 2 ASN includes 136,961 east Asians and 12,481 south Asians. All participating studies are described in the **Supplementary Material**. Since discoveries of BP loci to date were largely from EUR populations, considerable effort was made for recruiting most of the available non-EUR cohorts into stage 1 (which limited the availability of non-EUR cohorts in stage 2). Each study obtained informed consent from participants and approval from the appropriate institutional review boards.

Phenotypes and Lifestyle Variables

Resting systolic BP (SBP) and diastolic BP (DBP) were measured using standard clinical procedures that produce comparable measurements (specific methods per study were described more in Supplementary Material). Even with some difference in measurement across studies, the measures were standardized, through previous main effect BP GWAS studies, as much as possible for BP. For individuals on any anti-hypertensive (BP lowering) medications, 15 mmHg and 10 mmHg were added to their SBP and DBP values, respectively (1). PP was computed as SBP minus DBP ($PP = SBP - DBP$) and MAP was computed as the sum of DBP and one-third of PP ($MAP = DBP + PP/3$). To reduce the influence of possible outliers, each BP value was winsorized at 6 standard deviations away from the mean (i.e., values greater than 6 SD away from the mean were set at 6 SD).

Obtained through interview-based or self-reported questionnaire, varying levels of smoking information were available across studies, some with a simple binary variable and others with repeated data. We considered two of the most widely available smoking variables: ‘current smoking’ status (CurSmk) and ‘ever smoking’ status (EverSmk) (**Table 1**). Current smoking status was defined as 1 if the individual smoked regularly in past year (and as 0 for non-current smokers, which includes both never and former smokers). Ever smoking status was defined as 1 if the individual smoked at least 100 cigarettes during his/her lifetime (and as 0 for the never-smokers). Smoking status was assessed at the time of the BP measurements. Covariates include age, sex, field center (for multi-center studies), and principal component (PC)s (to account for population stratification and admixture). No additional covariates were included. Individuals with missing data for BP, the smoking variable, or any covariates were excluded from analysis. Study-specific summary statistics on phenotypes are presented in **Tables S3-S4**.

Genotype Data

Genotyping was obtained using Illumina (San Diego, CA, USA) or Affymetrix (Santa Clara, CA, USA) genotyping arrays. Each study performed genotype imputation at single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), short insertions and deletions (indels), and larger deletions that were not genotyped directly but are available from the 1000 Genomes Project (93). For imputation, most studies used the 1000 Genomes Project Phase I Integrated Release Version 3 Haplotypes (2010-11 data freeze, 2012-03-14 haplotypes), which contain haplotypes of 1,092 individuals of all ancestry backgrounds. Study-specific information on genotyping and imputation is presented in **Tables S5-S6**.

Cohort-specific Analysis

We identified loci through the 2 degrees-of-freedom (DF) test that jointly test the genetic main effect and the gene-smoking interaction jointly. This approach has previously enabled identification of new loci associated with insulin resistance, including how the effect of variants differs with levels of BMI (11). The method is described in detail for single studies in Kraft et al (94) and for implementation in meta-analyses in Manning et al (24).

Participating studies performed association analyses separately within each ancestry for MAP and PP incorporating current smoking (CurSmk) and ever smoking (EverSmk). All studies performed regression analysis using a model with both genetic main and GxE interaction effects (94):

$$E[Y] = \beta_0 + \beta_E Smk + \beta_G G + \beta_{GE} Smk * G + \beta_C C$$

Y is the medication-adjusted BP value, Smk is the smoking variable (with 0/1 coding for the absence/presence of the smoking exposure), G is the dosage of the imputed genetic variant coded additively (from 0 to 2), and C is the vector of all other covariates, which include age, sex, field center (for multi-center studies), and principal component (PC)s (to account for population stratification and admixture). No additional cohort-specific covariates were included. From this model, the studies provided the estimated genetic main and interaction effects and a robust estimate of the corresponding covariance matrix. In addition, studies in stage 1 performed regression analyses with the genetic main-effect model, in the exposed ($Smk=1$) and unexposed strata ($Smk=0$) separately, and provided estimates of the stratum-specific effects and robust estimates of their standard errors (SE).

Either sandwich (95) or ProbABEL (96) packages were used to obtain robust estimates of covariance matrices and robust SEs for samples of unrelated individuals. Family studies used the

generalized estimating equations (GEE) approach, treating each family as a cluster, or the linear mixed effect model approach with a random polygenic component (for which the covariance matrix depends on the kinship matrix). Robust estimates of covariance matrices and SEs were used to safeguard against mis-specification of the mean model and violation of the assumption of constant BP variance across smoking groups (heteroscedasticity) (97, 98).

Quality Control (QC)

Each study performed standard genotype quality control (QC) includes excluding SNPs with call rate ($< 95\%$ or higher) and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) $p < 10^{-6}$. In addition, we performed extensive QC using the R package EasyQC (99) for all cohort-specific results. For GWAS results in stage 1, each cohort applied a preliminary filter on their imputed data excluding variants with minor allele frequency (MAF) $< 1\%$. Variants with imputation quality measure < 0.5 were subsequently excluded. We performed the “study-level” QC, which included carefully checking the observed allele frequencies against the corresponding ancestry-specific 1000 Genomes Project data and harmonizing marker names to ensure consistencies across cohorts. In addition, in stage 1, we compared results from the joint and stratified models, as explained elsewhere (100). To identify cross-study issues, we then performed the “meta-level” QC by checking result files across all cohorts for each analysis. This included visually comparing summary statistics (mean, median, inter-quartile range, etc.) on all effect estimates, SEs and p-values, and examining SE-N and QQ plots to reveal issues with trait transformation (99) or other analytical problems. Encountered QC problems were communicated and resolved with the individual cohorts. More detailed information about QC is described elsewhere (13, 16).

Meta-analyses

After selecting high-quality variants through extensive QC, approximately 18.8 million SNPs and small insertion and deletion (indels) variants were included in the meta-analysis (the number of variants varied across the ancestry groups). To combine cohort-specific results within each ancestry, we first performed ancestry-specific meta-analyses; the results were then combined through meta-analysis to obtain evidence of “trans-ancestry” association. Inverse-variance weighted meta-analysis with METAL (101) was used for the 1 degree of freedom (DF) test of interaction effect (with $H_0: \beta_{GE} = 0$). For 2 DF tests of both SNP main and interaction effects (with $H_0: \beta_G = \beta_{GE} = 0$), the joint meta-analysis of Manning et al (24) was used. In the stratified model, we performed meta-analysis using the approach of Randall et al (102) for the 1 DF test and the approach of Aschard et al (103) for the 2 DF test using the R package EasyStrata (104). Additional details about the meta-analytic approach are described elsewhere (100).

In stage 1, genomic control correction (105) was applied twice, first for cohort-specific GWAS results if their genomic control lambda value was greater than 1, and again after the meta-analysis. Variants that passed QC were excluded if they were represented in fewer than 5,000 samples from at least 3 cohorts. Variants that were genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) or suggestive ($P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$) in stage 1 were pursued in stage 2. Heterogeneity p-values at the selected variants were $> 1 \times 10^{-5}$, indicating limited heterogeneity (data not shown). In stage 2, genomic control correction was not applied to the replication statistics as association analysis was performed only at select variants. Meta-analysis combining results of stages 1 and 2 was also performed. In addition, genome-wide significant variants in stage 1 were tested for formal replication in stage 2 using Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold.

Genome-wide Significant Variants

We considered a variant with $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ (the standard threshold in the field) to be genome-wide significant. We also identified novel loci that pass a more stringent threshold ($p < 6.25 \times 10^{-9}$, $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ adjusted for 2 smoking exposures, 2 tests, and 2 BP traits, where this correction is somewhat conservative given dependence between the various test statistics). Loci that pass the stricter p-value are indicated in main tables. False discovery rate (FDR) q-values were computed using the R function `p.adjust` using the step-up method by Benjamini and Hochberg (106). A new locus was identified if it was 1Mb away from any previously identified BP locus. A new signal was identified if it is within 1Mb of known BP loci but not in linkage disequilibrium (LD) $r^2 < 0.1$ with the known BP loci. Since valid methods do not exist for conditional analysis involving interactions across multi-ancestry studies, we relied on a relatively more stringent LD threshold ($r^2 < 0.1$) for identifying additional signals. For LD reference, ancestry-specific 1000 Genomes Project data (107) were used for ancestry-specific results and the entire cosmopolitan dataset was used for trans-ancestry results.

BP Variance Explained

We computed BP variance explained by genome-wide results, based on stage 1 stratified results with current-smoking status in European ancestry (25). Within each of the smoking strata, we computed the variance of MAP and PP explained by subsets of variants selected using 15 significance thresholds ranging from 1×10^{-8} to 0.1

Functional Inferences

We conducted DEPICT analyses (108) based on genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) variants from the combined analysis of stages 1 and 2. DEPICT performs three consecutive analyses: i) gene prioritization at the identified loci; ii) gene set enrichment analyses; and iii)

tissue- and cell-type specific expression analyses. To obtain input for the analyses, DEPICT applied a combined distance and LD based threshold (500 kb flanking regions and LD $r^2 > 0.1$) between the identified variants and the 1000 Genomes reference data (107). A further clumping (LD $r^2 > 0.5$ between the non-overlapping variants and known functional coding or cis-acting regulatory variants) was used to obtain a list of genes overlapping with the identified variants. The major histocompatibility complex region on chromosome 6 (25 Mb – 35 Mb) was removed for further analyses.

For gene prioritization, DEPICT compared functional similarity of genes across identified loci using a gene score, which was adjusted for confounders like gene length. To obtain FDR, the scoring was repeated 50 times based on 500 pre-compiled null GWAS. For gene-set enrichment analyses, DEPICT used 14,461 pre-compiled reconstituted gene sets; they include 737 Reactome pathways, 2,473 phenotypic gene sets (derived from the Mouse Genetics Initiative), 184 Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathways, 5,083 Gene Ontology terms, and 5,984 protein molecular pathways (derived from protein-protein interactions). For tissue and cell type enrichment analyses, DEPICT used expression data from the 209 MeSH annotations for 37,427 microarrays of the Affymetrix U133 Plus 2.0 Array platform.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests except for the following. Bruce M. Psaty serves on the DSMB of a clinical trial funded by the manufacturer (Zoll LifeCor) and on the Steering Committee of the Yale Open Data Access Project funded by Johnson & Johnson; Oscar H. Franco Received grants from Metagenics (on women's health and epigenetics) and from Nestle (on child health); Laura J. Bierut is listed as an inventor on Issued U.S. Patent 8,080,371, "Markers for Addiction" covering the use of certain SNPs in determining the diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment of addiction; Peter Sever has received research awards from Pfizer Inc; Jost Bruno Jonas is a consultant for Mundipharma Co. (Cambridge, UK); Patent holder with Biocompatibles UK Ltd. (Framham, Surrey, UK) (Title: Treatment of eye diseases using encapsulated cells encoding and secreting neuroprotective factor and / or anti-angiogenic factor; Patent number: 20120263794), and Patent application with University of Heidelberg (Heidelberg, Germany) (Title: Agents for use in the therapeutic or prophylactic treatment of myopia or hyperopia; Europäische Patentanmeldung 15 000 771.4); Paul W. Franks has been a paid consultant for Eli Lilly and Sanofi Aventis and has received research support from several pharmaceutical companies as part of a European Union Innovative Medicines Initiative (IMI)

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Figure legends

Figure 1: Study design

Summary of data included in this study.

Smk: smoking status (considering either current smoking or ever smoking status separately); PC:

principal component; EUR: European; AFR: African; ASN: Asian; HIS: Hispanic; BRZ:

Brazilian; TRANS; trans-ancestry (i.e., combining all ancestry groups through meta-analysis)

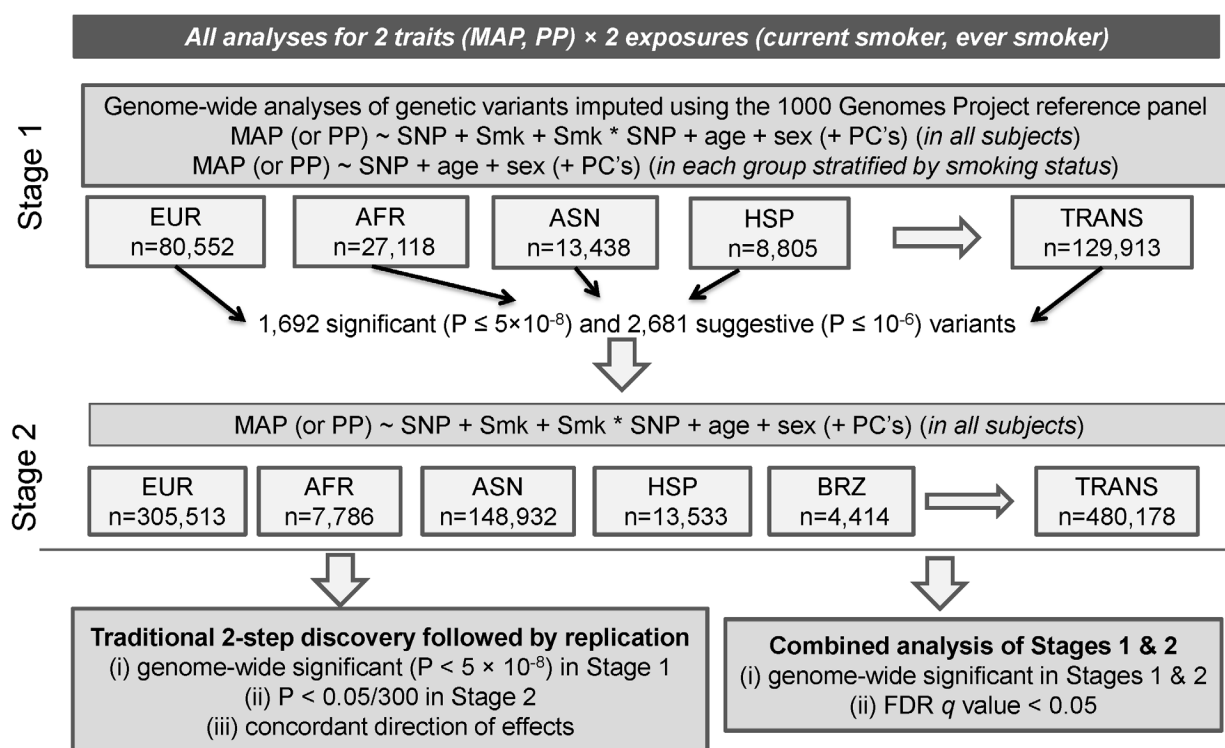


Figure 2: Venn diagram of loci/signals associated with the 4 BP traits

The diagram shows 133 loci and/or signals that were identified through gene-smoking interactions. In this paper, we newly identified 38 loci (Table 2) and 9 signals near known BP loci (Table 3) that are unique to MAP and/or PP (to a total of 49 new loci/signals). We had reported 81 loci associated with SBP/DBP (16), among which 37 showed association with MAP or PP. SBP: systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; MAP: mean arterial pressure; PP: pulse pressure

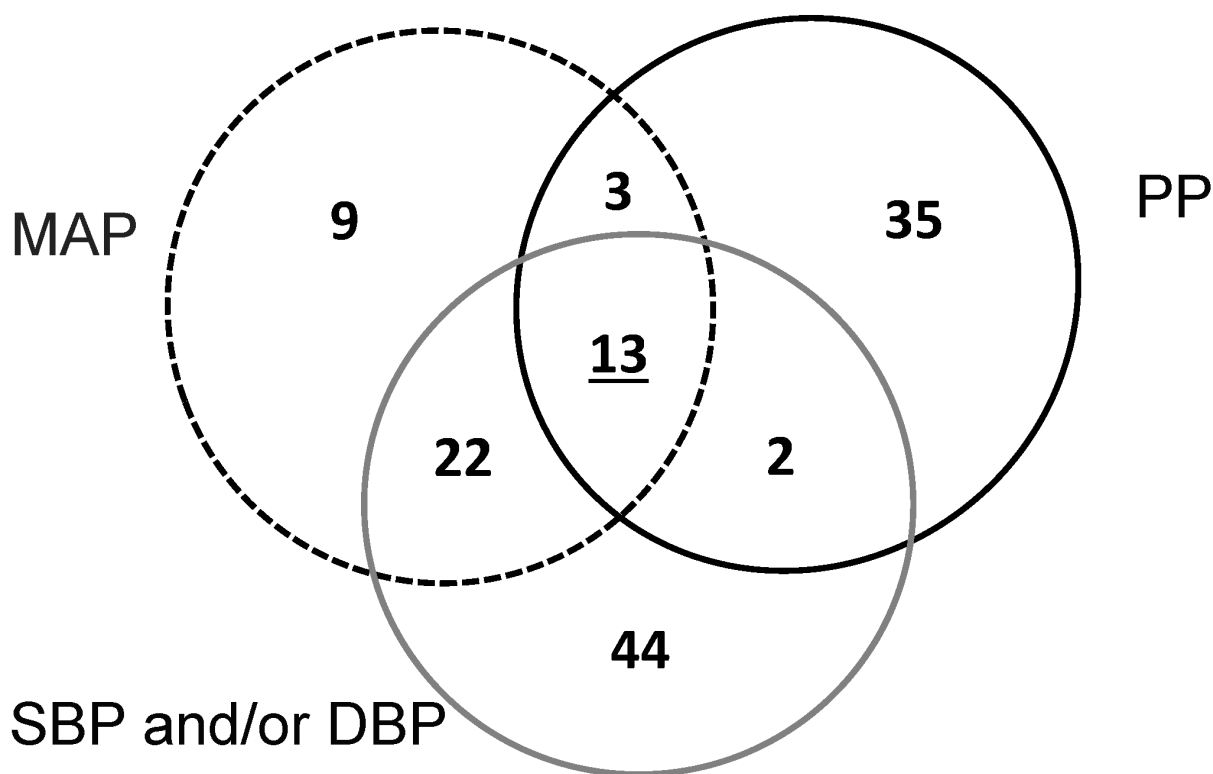


Figure 3: Smoking-specific genetic effect sizes in African ancestry for MAP or PP

Among the 138 loci significantly associated with MAP and/or PP, 8 loci show significant interactions with smoking exposure status in African ancestry. Smoking-specific effect estimates and 95% confidence intervals for variants associated with BP traits are shown as red and blue squares for current-smokers and non-current smokers, respectively. SNP effects between two strata are significantly different (1 DF interaction $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$). These results were based on African-specific results in stage 1.

MAP: mean arterial pressure; PP: pulse pressure; CS: current-smoking

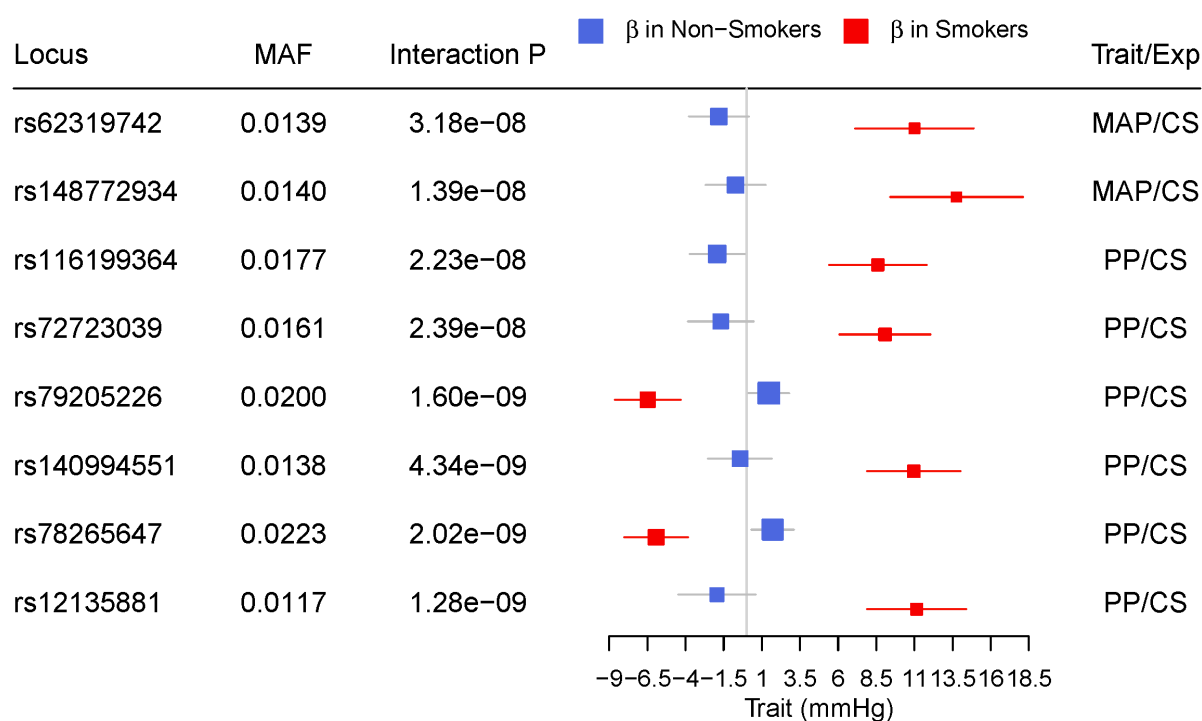


Figure 4: Smoking-specific estimates of variance explained in European ancestry

The variants with $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$ explained 1.9% of variance in MAP and 0.5% of variance in PP, whereas variants with $P \leq 10^{-4}$ explained 16% of variance in MAP and 11% of variance in PP.

The vertical line corresponds to FDR = 0.1.

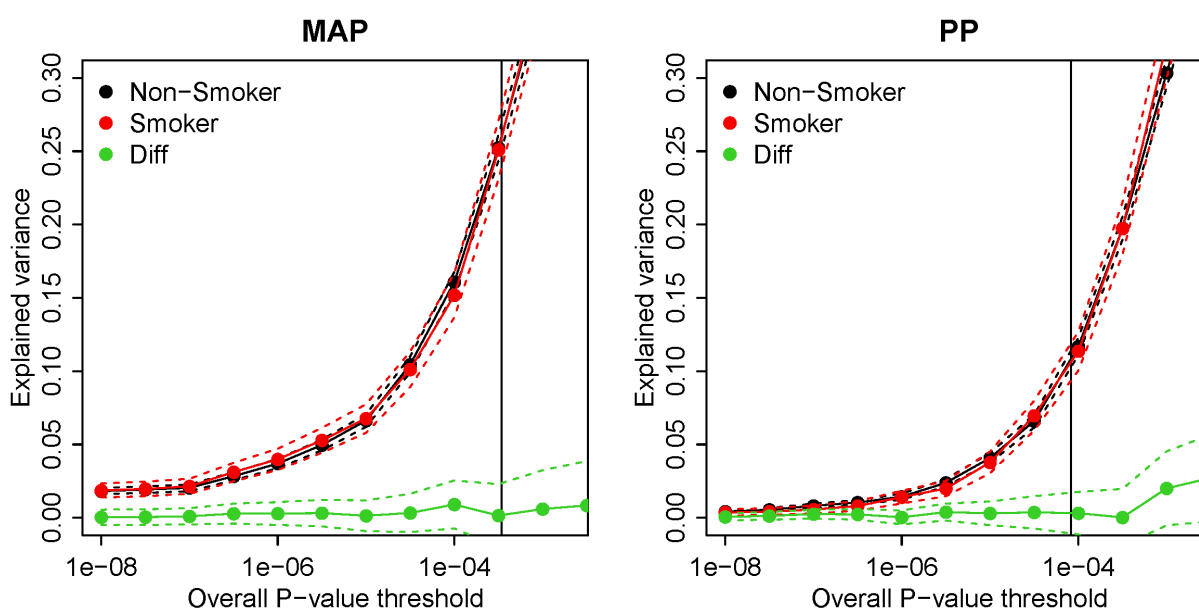


Figure 5: LocusZoom plots for 4 selected loci associated with MAP and/or PP

(A) rs140881076 (chr1:15364113) was identified in an analysis of individuals of African ancestry and is intronic to *KAZN*; neighboring genes have been implicated in cardiovascular traits. *FHADI* is a long non-coding RNA overexpressed in heart failure, *TMEM51* has been associated with contractile function in cardiomyocytes, and *CASP9* plays a central role in cardiomyocyte apoptosis.

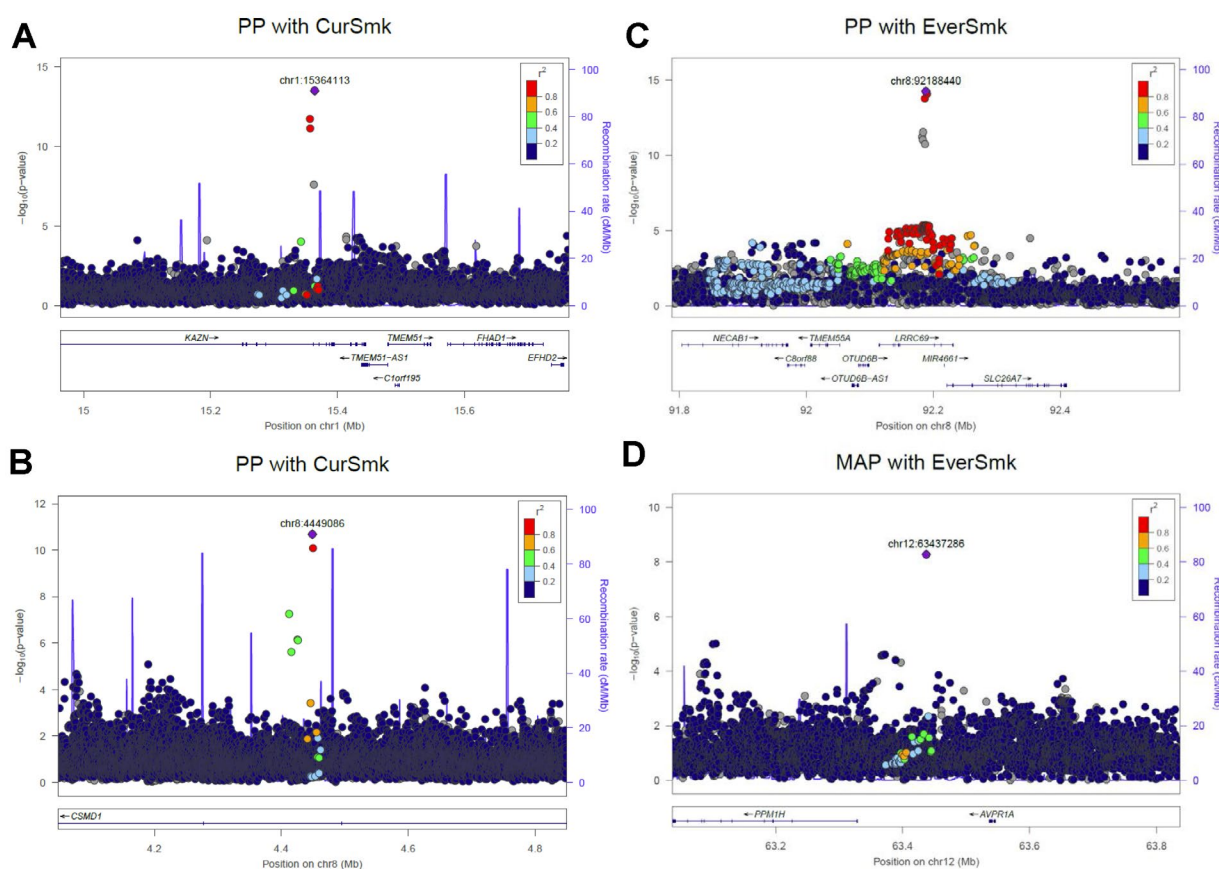
(B) rs140994551 (chr8:4449086), intronic to *CSMD1*, shows interaction with current smoking in individuals of African Ancestry. *CSMD1* are shown to be associated with insulin resistance and BP in the spontaneously hypertensive rats. *CSMD1* is also suggestively-associated with studies of addiction and related disorders.

(C) rs11991823 (chr8:92188440) was associated with PP in trans-ancestry analyses and in intronic to *LRRC69*. The nearby gene *SLC26A7* encodes a chloride/bicarbonate-exchanger expressed specifically in the renal outer medullary collecting duct.

(D) rs146924684 (chr12:63437286) was association with MAP in individuals of African ancestry. The nearby gene *AVPR1A* is widely expressed including in vascular smooth muscle cells, kidney, myocardium, and brain.

CurSmk: current smoking status; EverSmk: ever smoking status; MAP: mean arterial pressure;

PP: pulse pressure. The plots were created using LocusZoom (<http://locuszoom.sph.umich.edu/>).



Tables

Table 1: Basic characteristics of cohorts in Stages 1 and 2 in each ancestry.

	Current Smoker		Former Smoker		Never Smoker		Male	HTN	HT Meds	Age		MAP		PP	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	%	%	%	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Stage 1															
EUR	14,607	18.1	28,409	35.3	37,535	46.6	32.6	38.2	25.4	54.63	8	94.63	12.9	52.02	13.3
AFR	5,545	21.5	7,185	27.8	13,121	50.8	26.5	55.9	39.5	54.49	9.1	99.96	14.9	54.67	16.4
ASN	2,465	18.3	1,677	12.5	9,296	69.2	51.2	46.9	27	55.42	9.7	98.70	13.4	57.86	15.8
HIS	1,068	12.1	2,160	24.5	5,577	63.3	24.9	43.5	13.3	55.5	11	94.80	13.9	53.55	16.4
<i>Stage 1 Total</i>	<i>23,685</i>	<i>18.4</i>	<i>39,431</i>	<i>30.7</i>	<i>65,529</i>	<i>50.9</i>	<i>32.8</i>	<i>43.1</i>	<i>27.7</i>	<i>54.74</i>	<i>8.6</i>	<i>96.17</i>	<i>13.4</i>	<i>53.28</i>	<i>14.4</i>
Stage 2															
EUR	48,198	17	89,597	31.6	145,914	51.4	47.8	44.8	25	55.91	8.6	102.17	13.5	55.29	13.9
AFR	1,971	29.8	1,579	23.8	3,075	46.4	40.9	54.3	42.8	53.66	10.2	101.21	14.7	53.68	14.8
ASN	29,485	19.8	40,850	27.4	78,597	52.8	54.9	50.3	33.1	60.76	12.3	98.31	13.9	54.91	14.0
HIS	2,739	20.3	2,559	18.9	8,231	60.8	41	26.9	16.3	45.86	13.8	91.36	13.7	48.99	13.3
BRZ	998	22.6	514	11.6	2,902	65.8	48	15.5	6.3	27.78	3.2	89.75	12.3	45.23	9.8
<i>Stage 2 Total</i>	<i>83,391</i>	<i>18.2</i>	<i>135,099</i>	<i>29.6</i>	<i>238,719</i>	<i>52.2</i>	<i>49.7</i>	<i>45.9</i>	<i>27.4</i>	<i>56.84</i>	<i>9.9</i>	<i>100.54</i>	<i>13.7</i>	<i>54.88</i>	<i>13.9</i>
TOTAL	107,076	18.3	174,530	29.8	304,248	51.9	46.1	45.3	27.4	56.4	9.6	99.61	13.6	54.54	14.0

The cell entries for the covariates and BP traits correspond to sample-size weighted averages across all cohorts in each category. EUR: European; AFR: African; ASN: Asian; HIS: Hispanic; BRZ: Brazilian; ALL: trans-ancestry (i.e., combining all ancestry groups through meta-analysis); HTN: hypertension; MAP: mean arterial pressure; PP: pulse pressure

Table 2: Thirty-eight new loci associated with MAP and/or PP that are at least 1Mb away from any known BP locus

Locus	rsID	Nearest Gene	Position	EA	Race	Trait/ Exposure	G Effect	G StdErr	GxE Effect	GxE StdErr	Interaction P	Joint P	FDR q value	N
1	rs115356163	<i>PADI2</i>	1:17466024	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	0.22	0.87	-7.70	1.53	0.04	5.17E-09*	3.63E-05	12,712
2	rs147515295	<i>EYA3; SESN2</i>	1:28389841	0.98	HIS	MAP/ES	2.94	1.04	2.80	1.52	0.10	3.47E-08	0.018721	7,287
3	rs11587661	<i>COG2</i>	1:230671208	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	0.44	0.86	-7.63	1.51	1.31E-06	4.95E-08	0.010168	13,888
4	rs138318054	<i>KIAA1804</i>	1:233578559	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	-0.37	0.93	-7.58	1.66	1.40E-05	4.84E-08	0.010095	10,787
5	rs79113694	<i>GALNT14</i>	2:31253799	0.03	AFR	PP/ES	-0.60	0.58	-2.91	0.83	1.98E-04	7.65E-09	5.96E-05	25,557
6	rs183927068	<i>MAP2</i>	2:210288479	0.98	AFR	MAP/CS	-0.60	1.09	11.29	2.02	8.36E-08	2.05E-09*	0.001619	7,925
7	rs75875736	<i>STAC</i>	3:36341106	0.02	AFR	PP/ES	-3.49	0.58	3.15	0.94	1.23E-03	1.41E-08	0.000108	21,985
8	rs116199364	<i>CLSTN2</i>	3:139951198	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	1.94	0.92	-10.54	1.88	2.23E-08	1.04E-07	0.000675	10,787
9	rs114619985	<i>BODIL</i>	4:13599930	0.02	AFR	PP/ES	-2.74	0.78	-1.86	1.13	0.04	2.71E-10*	2.61E-06	18,015
10	rs201223145	<i>PRDM5</i>	4:121706475	0.97	AFR	PP/CS	2.67	0.68	2.91	1.39	0.12	5.91E-09*	0.001905	15,574
11	rs147998309	<i>PCDH10</i>	4:133596832	0.99	AFR	PP/CS	1.61	1.18	12.94	2.64	1.78E-06	2.41E-09*	1.74E-05	7,925
12	rs146622638	<i>GPM6A</i>	4:176524533	0.97	AFR	PP/ES	2.76	0.65	0.16	0.98	0.95	4.55E-08	0.000334	21,332
13	rs72723039	<i>IRX2</i>	5:2664169	0.98	AFR	PP/CS	-1.69	1.10	10.76	1.88	2.39E-08	6.55E-09	0.002064	7,925
14	rs79205226	<i>CDKALI</i>	6:21103825	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	1.46	0.68	-7.94	1.30	1.60E-09	3.38E-09*	2.41E-05	15,574
15	rs200495667	<i>ALDH8A1</i>	6:135152480	0.08	ASN	PP/CS	-2.48	0.41	2.63	0.92	3.11E-03	1.50E-08	0.000378	10,110
16	rs190090939	<i>ACTR3B</i>	7:152802243	0.01	AFR	PP/CS	-0.01	1.12	-11.94	2.24	1.86E-07	5.41E-09*	3.79E-05	7,925
17	rs140994551	<i>CSMD1</i>	8:4449086	0.01	AFR	PP/CS	0.43	1.07	-11.39	1.89	4.34E-09	2.07E-11*	1.93E-07	7,925
18	rs7817784	<i>TNKS</i>	8:9682553	0.57	EUR	MAP/CS	-0.23	0.03	0.05	0.08	0.89	6.93E-13*	2.59E-09	364,584
19	rs12156238	<i>FAM167A</i>	8:11285135	0.19	EUR	MAP/ES	-0.30	0.06	0.10	0.08	0.29	1.03E-08	1.69E-05	349,729
20	MERGED_DEL_2_50178	<i>PKIA</i>	8:79178179	0.01	EUR	MAP/CS	1.60	1.34	-9.18	1.86	6.30E-07	1.25E-08	3.56E-05	9,465
21	rs11991823	<i>LRRC69; SLC26A7</i>	8:92188440	0.37	Trans	PP/ES	-0.23	0.03	0.06	0.05	0.43	1.29E-15*	8.89E-11	552,719
22	rs7823377	<i>TRHR</i>	8:110073120	0.63	Trans	PP/CS	-0.15	0.03	0.05	0.06	0.41	3.90E-08	0.000260	583,554
23	rs76209156	<i>KDM4C</i>	9:7423109	0.99	AFR	PP/CS	0.03	1.19	10.43	2.14	1.96E-06	2.94E-08	0.000197	7,925
24	rs77548020	<i>FLJ41200; NFIB</i>	9:13480744	0.98	AFR	PP/CS	0.75	0.83	7.27	1.59	1.56E-04	1.91E-08	0.00013	10,787
25	rs75872665	<i>LOC100128811</i>	10:25388468	0.99	AFR	PP/CS	0.08	1.09	8.94	1.88	3.41E-04	2.80E-08	0.000188	10,787
26	rs76497600	<i>BUB3</i>	10:125119610	0.03	AFR	PP/ES	-0.79	0.61	-2.65	0.85	0.01	2.29E-08	0.000173	21,336

27	rs148454833	<i>OR52A4</i>	11:5114798	0.98	AFR	PP/CS	0.34	0.76	7.09	1.47	8.39E-06	2.16E-08	0.000147	13,888
28	rs186331780	<i>FAM19A2</i>	12:61710810	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	-2.43	0.89	-4.88	1.66	0.02	3.15E-08	0.007099	10,787
29	rs146924684	<i>AVPR1A</i>	12:63437286	0.99	AFR	MAP/ES	4.88	0.83	-3.20	1.22	0.18	5.29E-09*	2.62E-05	18,015
30	rs117206641	<i>FBRSL1</i>	12:133086888	0.11	Trans	MAP/CS	0.32	0.05	0.03	0.13	0.70	1.14E-10*	5.71E-07	393,100
31	rs73212161	<i>TDRD3</i>	13:61261485	0.99	AFR	PP/ES	-1.39	1.40	7.80	1.77	1.50E-05	1.68E-08	0.006503	13,888
32	rs78265647	<i>IGF1R</i>	15:99247941	0.98	AFR	PP/CS	-1.71	0.72	7.64	1.28	2.02E-09*	8.86E-09	6.09E-05	15,847
33	rs145181522	<i>TOX3</i>	16:52490106	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	-0.65	0.95	-8.04	1.58	3.67E-05	3.66E-11*	3.32E-07	10,787
34	rs114511313	<i>NUDT7</i>	16:77706251	0.98	AFR	PP/CS	1.67	0.73	4.06	1.28	0.13	1.63E-08	0.000111	15,574
35	rs75129914	<i>RIT2</i>	18:40267945	0.97	AFR	PP/ES	0.32	0.61	3.42	0.85	3.81E-04	2.13E-09*	1.80E-05	21,794
36	rs115134409	<i>MALTI; NEDD4L</i>	18:56324467	0.02	AFR	PP/CS	-0.31	0.77	-6.46	1.29	3.26E-03	3.64E-10*	2.92E-06	12,890
37	rs78375085	<i>TNFRSF11A</i>	18:60032891	0.98	AFR	PP/ES	4.55	0.77	-5.57	1.21	4.71E-06	1.64E-08	0.000124	17,616
38	rs191056303	<i>PXMP4</i>	20:32306802	0.98	AFR	PP/CS	0.15	0.74	7.41	1.47	5.99E-07	1.77E-08	0.000121	13,888

A new BP locus was defined as a significantly associated variant that is at least 1Mb away from any previously identified BP locus. Each locus is genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the combined analyses of Stages 1 and 2 and had FDR q value < 0.05 . Findings with an asterisk indicate statistical significance using a stricter p-value threshold, after Bonferroni correction for 2 smoking traits, 2 tests, and 2 BP traits ($5 \times 10^{-8}/8 = 6.25 \times 10^{-9}$).

Positions are based on human genome build 37. EAF: effect allele frequency; G effect: the estimate of the genetic main effect (β_G); GxE effect: the estimate of genetic-smoking interaction effect (β_{GE}); Interaction P: P-value for testing the GxE interaction effect with 1 degree of freedom; Joint P: P-value for jointly testing G main and GxE interaction effects with 2 degrees of freedom; EUR: European ancestry. Trans: trans-ancestry (i.e., combining all ancestry groups through meta-analysis); MAP: mean arterial pressure; PP: pulse pressure; CS: current-smoking; ES: ever-smoking.

Table 3: Nine new signals associated with MAP and/or PP that are near known BP loci (but not in LD, $r^2 < 0.1$).

Locus	rsID	Nearest Gene	Position	EAF	Race	Trait/ Exposure	G Effect	G StdErr	GxE Effect	GxE StdErr	Interaction P	Joint P	FDR q value
1	rs140881076	<i>KAZN</i>	1:15364113	0.01	AFR	PP/CS	0.45	1.13	-11.95	1.85	2.30E-03	3.29E-14*	4.16E-10
2	rs2071405	<i>AGT</i>	1:230850658	0.13	Trans	MAP/CS	0.28	0.04	-0.18	0.09	0.20	3.02E-12*	1.62E-08
3	rs143802076	<i>C3orf38</i>	3:88646080	0.01	AFR	PP/CS	-0.50	0.90	-8.54	1.68	8.97E-04	1.33E-09*	9.81E-06
4	rs1009382	<i>TNXB</i>	6:32026107	0.71	EUR	PP/CS	0.26	0.04	-0.16	0.08	0.15	4.84E-13*	3.30E-09
5	rs7005363	<i>MSRA</i>	8:10283748	0.54	EUR	MAP/ES	-0.34	0.04	0.15	0.06	0.02	3.13E-17*	1.59E-13
6	rs187148391	<i>TXN</i>	9:112998518	0.99	HIS	MAP/ES	0.09	0.69	4.48	1.03	1.01E-03	1.95E-08	0.013302
7	rs10894198	<i>ADAMTS8</i>	11:130285493	0.38	Trans	PP/CS	0.27	0.03	-0.12	0.07	0.33	1.38E-19*	3.19E-15
8	rs1010064	<i>LOC100506393</i> <i>PDE3A</i>	12:20000315	0.75	Trans	MAP/ES	0.24	0.04	-0.12	0.06	0.03	5.91E-11*	6.64E-10
9	rs201028933	<i>LOC338758</i>	12:90111249	0.79	Trans	MAP/ES	0.32	0.08	0.16	0.11	0.28	1.73E-11*	9.75E-08

A new signal is defined as a significantly associated variant within 1Mb of known BP loci but in weak linkage disequilibrium (LD) $r^2 < 0.1$ with the known BP loci. LD for the trans-ancestry signals was based on the entire 1000 Genomes cosmopolitan data, whereas LD for ancestry-specific signals was based on ancestry-specific population (e.g., LD for European signals were based on 1000 Genomes European data). Each locus is genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) in the combined analyses of Stages 1 and 2 and had FDR q value < 0.05 . Findings with an asterisk indicate statistical significance using a stricter p-value threshold, after Bonferroni correction for 2 smoking traits, 2 tests, and 2 BP traits ($5 \times 10^{-8}/8 = 6.25 \times 10^{-9}$).

Positions are based on human genome build 37. EA: effect allele; EAF: effect allele frequency; G effect: the estimate of the genetic main effect (β_G); GxE effect: the estimate of genetic-smoking interaction effect (β_{GE}); Interaction P: P-value for testing the GxE interaction effect with 1 degree of freedom; Joint P: P-value for jointly testing G main and GxE interaction effects with 2 degrees of freedom; EUR: European ancestry. trans: trans-ancestry (i.e., combining all ancestry groups through meta-analysis); MAP: mean arterial pressure; PP: pulse pressure; CS: current-smoking; ES: ever-smoking